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# Correlation between the H<sub>2</sub> response and its oxidation over TiO<sub>2</sub> and N doped TiO<sub>2</sub> under UV irradiation induced by Fermi level



Kun Wang<sup>a,b</sup>, Ting Peng<sup>a,b</sup>, Zhongming Wang<sup>a,b</sup>, Hong Wang<sup>a,b</sup>, Xun Chen<sup>a</sup>, Wenxin Dai<sup>a,b,\*</sup>, Xianzhi Fu<sup>a,\*</sup>

- <sup>a</sup> Research Institute of Photocatalysis, State Key Laboratory of Photocatalysis on Energy and Environment, Fuzhou University, Fuzhou, 350002, China
- <sup>b</sup> Key Laboratory of Eco-materials Advanced Technology (Fuzhou University), Fujian Province University, Fuzhou, 350002, China

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#### ABSTRACT

In the previous work, we have ever found that the photocatalytic oxidation of a reactant gas over TiO<sub>2</sub> would be somewhat dependent on the electron transfer behavior between the adsorbed gas and TiO2 under UV irradiation. To further confirm the viewpoint, in this work, a TiO2 (in-situ) sample was prepared by an in-situ method, and was tested its gas-sensing performance to H2 and its photocatalytic performance of oxidizing H2 as compared to a TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial) sample. It was found that TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ) would increase the conductivity with the introduction of H<sub>2</sub> under UV irradiation, but TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial) would decrease the conductivity in the same case. Based on the surface structural and electrochemical characteristics of samples, it was proposed that the existence of surface defects over  $TiO_2$  (in-situ) would decrease the Fermi level ( $E_F$ ), resulting in the electron transfer from the adsorbed H2 to TiO2, while the adsorbed H2 accepted electrons from TiO2 (commercial) due to its higher EF. Moreover, the adsorbed H2 on TiO2 (in-situ) could be oxidized under UV irradiation but that on TiO2 (commercial) could be hardly. This indicated that the photocatalytic oxidation of H2 over TiO2 would be dependent on the electron transfer direction between the adsorbed H2 and TiO2, i.e., the electron-donated H2 could be oxidized, while the electron-accepted H2 could be not. This above effect induced by the surface defects could be further demonstrated by a N-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> (N-TiO<sub>2</sub>) sample. This N-TiO<sub>2</sub> owned a lower E<sub>F</sub> than TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ) due to the introduction of a more impurity defects, resulting in a more electron transfer from the adsorbed H2 to N-TiO2 and then the oxidation of more H2. This study also indicated that the adjustment of EF could improve the photocatalytic activity of oxidizing H2 by changing the adsorbed behavior of H2 over TiO2, which may be applicable for investigating other reactants' oxidation behaviors over other semiconductor photocatalysts.

# 1. Introduction

As well known, the gas reaction process over a solid catalyst would be somewhat dependent on the adsorption of reactant gases on the catalyst surface. However, when a gas is adsorbed at the surface of a semiconductor catalyst (e.g., transition metal oxide such as TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO et al.), an electron transfer process can occur between the semiconductor and adsorbate according to the theory of semiconductor adsorbing species (e.g., Boundary layer theory) [1]. For the n-type semiconductor TiO<sub>2</sub>, if the surface-state energy level of adsorbate is higher than the Fermi level of TiO<sub>2</sub>, the adsorbed species can act as electron donor to donate electrons into TiO<sub>2</sub>, resulting in the increase in the surface conductivity of TiO<sub>2</sub>. In contrast, if the surface-state energy level of adsorbate is lower than the Fermi level of TiO<sub>2</sub>, the adsorbed

species (as electron acceptor) can accept the electrons from the conduction band of  ${\rm TiO_2}$ , resulting in the decrease in the surface conductivity of  ${\rm TiO_2}$ . Moreover, the change value in conductivity induced by adsorbing gas can be characterized by a gas sensing property, which can reflect the chemisorption strength of adsorbate (gas) at  ${\rm TiO_2}$  surface [2]. That is to say, the gas sensing property can partly present the chemisorption behavior (mainly the electron transfer behavior) of the target gas at  ${\rm TiO_2}$  or other semiconductors, and then have a somewhat relation with the subsequent reaction process of the target gas.

Many works reported that metal oxide sensors could exhibit an excellent gas sensitivity under ultra-violet (UV) /visible light illumination [3–9]. E.g., ZnO [10–12], SnO<sub>2</sub> [4,13] and TiO<sub>2</sub> [14–16] had been widely used in photo-assisted gas sensor for  $\rm H_2$ , NO<sub>2</sub>, CO and so on. Considering that the probable relation between a reacted gas

E-mail addresses: daiwenxin@fzu.edu.cn (W. Dai), xzfu@fzu.edu.cn (X. Fu).

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding authors at: Research Institute of Photocatalysis, State Key Laboratory of Photocatalysis on Energy and Environment, Fuzhou University, Fuzhou, 350002. China

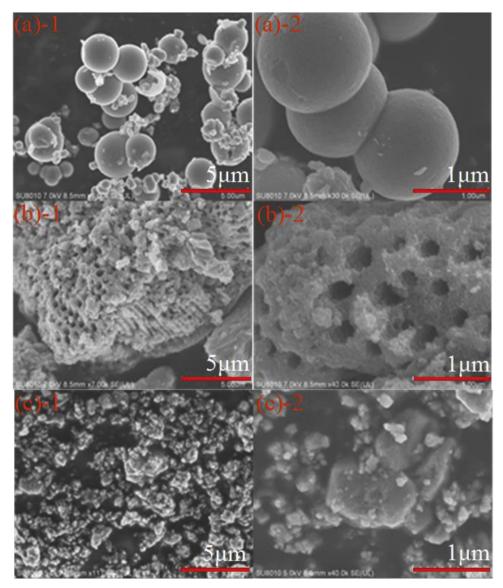


Fig. 1. SEM images of TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ) (a-1 and a-2), N-TiO<sub>2</sub> (b-1 and b-2) and TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial) (c-1 and c-2) sensor samples.

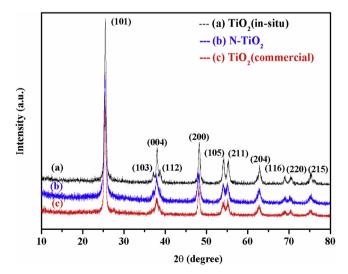


Fig. 2. XRD patterns of  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (a)  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (in-situ); (b) N-TiO<sub>2</sub> and (c)  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (commercial) samples.

Table 1 The textural data of  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (commercial), N-TiO $_2$  and  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (in-situ) samples by N $_2$  adsorption.

Samples	BET surface area (m <sup>2</sup> ·g <sup>-1</sup> )	Pore diameter (nm)	Pore volume (cm <sup>3</sup> ·g <sup>-1</sup> )
TiO <sub>2</sub> (commercial)	24.84	4.51	0.054
N-TiO <sub>2</sub>	81.51	8.16	0.209
TiO <sub>2</sub> (in-situ)	24.21	4.57	0.053

sensing property and its chemisorption at semiconductor, the photo-assisted gas sensing properties of semiconductors should have a somewhat relation to the photocatalytic reaction of gas over semiconductors. This correlation was also confirmed by our previous works [17,18]. We have ever found that adding polyaniline (PANI) into  $\text{TiO}_2$  could enhance the photo-assisted sensing response to CO, which also further promoted the photocatalytic oxidation of CO [17]. Moreover, we also found that the photocatalytic oxidation of CO and  $\text{H}_2$  over  $\text{TiO}_2$  (prepared by sol-gel method) would be dependent on the electron transfer direction between CO or  $\text{H}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  by a photo-assisted gas sensing testing [18]. For CO gas, it could offer electrons to  $\text{TiO}_2$ , resulting in the decrease in the resistance of  $\text{TiO}_2$  sensor under UV irradiation at room

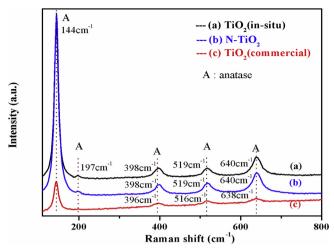


Fig. 3. Raman spectra of different anatase  ${\rm TiO_2}$  samples: (a)  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (in-situ), (b) N-TiO<sub>2</sub>, (c) TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial).

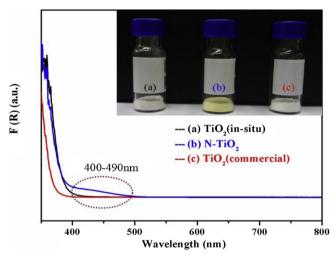
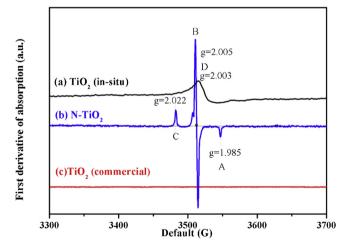


Fig. 4. UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of (a)  $TiO_2$  (in-situ), (b) N- $TiO_2$  and (c)  $TiO_2$  (commercial) samples.



**Fig. 5.** EPR spectra recorded at room temperature in dark over different samples: (a) TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ); (b) N-TiO<sub>2</sub>; (c) TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial). Note that UV light did not cause the apparent change in EPR signals of each sample (the spectra were not shown here).

temperature, and could also be photocatalytic oxidized by this  ${\rm TiO_2}$  catalyst. In contrast,  ${\rm H_2}$  gas would accept the electrons from  ${\rm TiO_2}$ ,

resulting in the increase in the resistance of  $TiO_2$  sensor, but it could not be photocatalytic oxidized. Furthermore, it was proposed that the location of adsorption-state energy level of CO adsorbed at  $TiO_2$  surface was higher than the Fermi level of  $TiO_2$  under UV irradiation, but that of  $H_2$  adsorbed at  $TiO_2$  surface was lower than the Fermi level of  $TiO_2$  in the same case. This study indicated that the Fermi level of  $TiO_2$  would be responsible for the electron transfer direction between the adsorbed gas and  $TiO_2$ , and then the photocatalytic oxidation of gas or not. That is to say, adjusting the Fermi level of  $TiO_2$  maybe change the electron transfer direction between the adsorbed reactants and  $TiO_2$ , and then change the photocatalytic oxidation behaviors of reactants.

However, the Fermi level of metal oxides is somewhat dependent on its surface state, especially its surface defects [19,20] induced by the process of synthesis [21]. Moreover, the presence of some impurities could also cause the change in Fermi level of TiO2 [19-21]. E.g., a nonmetallic element, such as nitrogen [22-24], carbon [25], sulfur [26,27] and boron [28,29] could adjust the energy gap and the Fermi level of TiO2. Furthermore, this changed energy gap and the Fermi level could further improve the photocatalytic activity of metal oxides. For example, Anupama et al. [30] have found that doping carbon could modified the band gap of TiO<sub>2</sub> and then promote the photo-degradation of pharmaceutical under visible light irradiation. Adriana et al. [31] have reported that the boron-doped TiO2 could be excited by visible light and used as effective catalyst in photo-oxidation reactions. In addition, Gyula et al. [32] have also reported that the decrease in the band gap of TiO2 through N incorporation could facilitate the photolysis of formic acid under visible light irradiation. This above reports showed that different TiO2 samples may own different Fermi levels due to the presence of different surface defects, which could also be adjusted by doping non-metallic elements.

To further confirm the obtained correlation among the Fermi level of  $TiO_2$ , the electron transfer behavior of the adsorbed reactant and its oxidation over  $TiO_2$  under UV irradiation in our previous work [18], in this work, two anatase  $TiO_2$  samples with different Fermi levels were compared their photo-assisted gas sensitivity to  $H_2$  and then their photocatalytic activities of oxidizing  $H_2$ . It was expected that a new prepared  $TiO_2$  with a lower Fermi level induced by surface defects maybe accept electrons from the adsorbed  $H_2$  and then photocatalytic oxide  $H_2$  just like that of CO. Moreover, to further lower the Fermi level of  $TiO_2$ , nitrogen element was doped into  $TiO_2$  to prepare a N- $TiO_2$  sample, which also was performed its gas sensing property and photocatalytic activity to  $H_2$ . It was found that the decrease in Fermi level of  $TiO_2$ -based samples does make the adsorbed  $H_2$  offer electrons to  $TiO_2$  and then be oxidized over  $TiO_2$  under UV irradiation.

# 2. Materials and methods

# 2.1. Preparation of TiO2 sensor

# 2.1.1. Preparation of commercial-TiO2 sensor

Commercial-TiO $_2$  sensor sample was prepared according to our previous work [33]: An interdigitated Au electrode (15 mm  $\times$  10 mm, the gap size of 0.15 mm) deposited on the alumina ( $\alpha$ -Al $_2$ O $_3$ ) substrate was used as the substrate for the gas sensor. The electrode was prepared: A microscope slide (Sail brand, China) was pretreated with acetone, ethanol, and deionized water in sequence, the subsequently dried process (80 °C for 30 min). To prepare the TiO $_2$  sensor device, a 50  $\mu$ L TiO $_2$  suspension (30 mg of commercial TiO $_2$  powder was dispersed into a 1 mL ethanediol solvent) was dropped onto the clean surface of a comb-like gold electrode. The TiO $_2$  sensor was dried at 80 °C for 1 h and then calcined in air at 450 °C for 3 h in a tube furnace with a heating rate of 2 °Cmin $^{-1}$ . After cooled down to the room temperature naturally, a TiO $_2$  film sensor device was obtained. In addition, the powder sample obtained from the above TiO $_2$  film was denoted as TiO $_2$  (commercial).

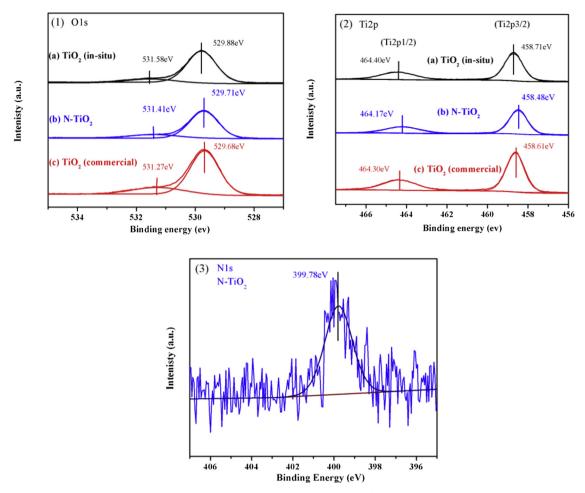


Fig. 6. XPS high-resolution spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ), N-TiO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial) samples: (1) O1s spectra, (2) Ti2p spectra, (3) N1s spectra.

# 2.1.2. Preparation of TiO2 sensor by in-situ method

In-situ TiO2 sensor sample was prepared according to our previous work [33]: An interdigitated Au electrode deposited on the alumina substrate was used as the substrate for the gas sensor. The electrode was first pretreated subsequently with acetone, ethanol, and deionized water, and then treated with piranha solution (30% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>: 98% H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> equivalent to 3:7 v/v) for 3 h in order to increase the surface hydrophilicity of the electrode. After rinsed several times with deionized water and dried in the oven at 80 °C, a clean electrode was obtained. In the second step, the clean electrode was dipped into a precursor solution containing a mixture of titanium isopropoxide and ethanol (1:10 v/ v) for 2 min. Then, the electrode was put on a smooth table to rest and be hydrolyzed naturally through the air humidity. Finally, the electrode was calcined at 500 °C for 2 h at a heating rate of 1 °C·min<sup>-1</sup>, and then let it cool down to room temperature. For characterization and testing purposes, TiO2 powder sample labeled as TiO2 (in-situ) was prepared using the above precursor solution, then exposed to air and subsequent hydrolization and calcination processes.

# 2.1.3. Preparation of N-TiO2 sensor

N-doped  $TiO_2$  (N- $TiO_2$ ) material was prepared by the hydrolysis reaction [34]: a volume of 100 mL ammonia aqueous solution at 30 wt %, supplied by Carlo Erba, was quickly added to 25.0 mL of 97% titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP by Sigma Aldrich) during a vigorous stirring of the solution in an ice-bath. After stirring for 1 h, the precipitate was then carefully washed with deionized water and centrifuged to be separated. Then washed precipitates by drying 80 °C were calcined at 450 °C for 30 min to obtain a powder sample, denoted as N- $TiO_2$  (also used as the photocatalyst) similarly to the process of

preparing commercial-TiO  $_2$  sensor in the 2.1.1 section, a N-TiO  $_2$  sensor sample was obtained.

#### 2.2. Characteristics

Surface morphologies of samples were performed with Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) (Hitachi S4800). The phase and crystal structure of  $TiO_2$  powder samples were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD, D8 Advance, Brucker, Germany) having Cu K $\alpha$  radiatio (20:  $10^{\circ}80^{\circ}$ , data analyzed by X'Pert HighScore). Nitrogen isothermal stripping absorption curves of samples were measured at liquid  $N_2$  temperature with a micromeritics ASAP 2020 BET analyzer afterthe sample was outgassed at vacuum and 250 °C for 4 h. The Raman spectrum of the samples were analyzed by Renishaw 2000 in Via confocal Raman spectrometer, the excitation wavelength used was 532 nm Ar + laser of 532 nm and scanning scope is 100–800 nm. UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectra (UV–vis DRS) of samples were recorded with UV–vis spectrophotometer (Cary-5000, Varian Co.). X-ray photoelectron spectrometer (XPS) was measured with Mg K $\alpha$  radiation after monochromatic treatment on the ESCALB mk-ii X-ray photoelectron spectrometer.

Electrochemical testing was used the Metrohm-Autolab AUT302 N Electrochemical workstation, which was conducted in a 3-electrode glass cell using the  $\rm TiO_2$  film as the working electrode, Ag/AgCl (1 M KCl) as the reference electrode, and Pt wire as the counter electrode. The frequency and amplitude were set to 500, 1000 and 1500 Hz and 5 mV, respectively. The Mott-schottky curve was measured in 0.02 mol·L $^{-1}$  Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution and tested in dark, in UV light, respectively. The UV light was supplied by a 500 W Xe lamp (also as the light source in other experiments in this work, its spectrogram seen in Fig. S1 in the

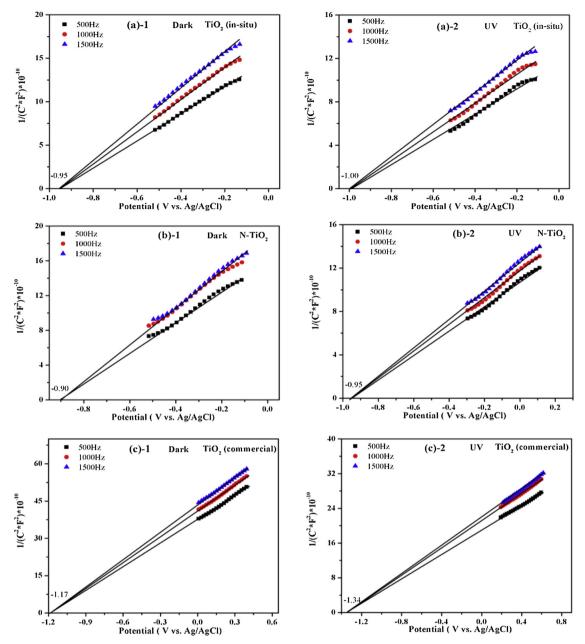


Fig. 7. Mott-Schottky plots (the graph is the point by taking the same number dots of straight lines.): (a)-1  $\text{TiO}_2$  (in-situ) (in dark), (a)-2  $\text{TiO}_2$  (in-situ) (UV); (b)-1  $\text{N-TiO}_2$  (in dark); (b)-2  $\text{N-TiO}_2$  (UV); (c)-1  $\text{TiO}_2$  (commercial) (in dark), (c)-2  $\text{TiO}_2$  (commercial) (UV).

**Table 2**The Fermi level values of different samples in dark and under UV irradiation from Fig.7.

Samples	Fermi level value in dark $(E_F)$ , $V$		Fermi level value under UV irradiation $(E_F^*)$ , V	
	Vs. Ag/AgCl	Vs. RHE	Vs. Ag/AgCl	Vs. RHE
TiO <sub>2</sub> (commercial) TiO <sub>2</sub> (in-situ) N-TiO <sub>2</sub>	-1.17 -0.95 -0.90	-0.52 -0.30 -0.25	-1.34 -1.00 -0.95	-0.69 -0.35 -0.30

electrical supporting information (ESI)).

Electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectra were registered at a microwave frequency of  $9.8\,\mathrm{GHz}$  and power of  $6.36\,\mathrm{Mw}$  by the Bruker EPR A300 spectrometer and all of the EPR spectra were obtained at room temperature.

# 2.3. Gas sensing testing

The gas sensing properties of the films were investigated in a chamber of 100 mL, which is made of stainless steel. During the tests, four UV lamps with a wavelength centered at 365 nm (4 W, Philips TL/05) were used as the irradiation source and the total light intensity on the surface of sensing film was 7.3 mW cm $^{-2}$ , a high purity  $N_2$  was introduced into the chamber as the background atmosphere, and  $H_2$  (balance with the high purity  $N_2$ ) was as the probe gas, and the total flow rate was kept at 250 mL min $^{-1}$ . The film sensor sample was maintained at 200 °C for 1 h in a high purity  $N_2$  before testing (to remove the water and the other gas adsorbates), and then cooled down the room temperature. In addition, the applied voltage was controlled at 8.5 V in testing process. The response of film sensor to the gas was described by the variation of its impedance, and the resistance of the film sensor was measured by a JF02E gas sensing test system (Kunming Gui Yan Jin Feng Tech. Corp. Ltd.) The relative gas sensitivity (S) of the

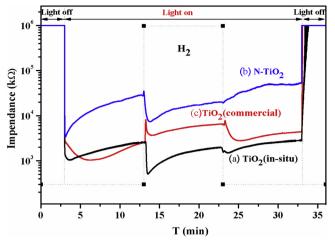


Fig. 8. Gas sensing responses to  $H_2$  under UV light irradiation at room temperature in  $N_2$  atmosphere over different sensor samples: (a)  $TiO_2$  (in-situ); (b) N-TiO<sub>2</sub>; (c)  $TiO_2$  (commercial).

**Table 3**Gas sensing values of samples to H<sub>2</sub> under UV light at room temperature from the results in Fig. 8.

Sensor samples	$R_0$ (K $\Omega$ )	$R_{gas}$ (K $\Omega$ )	$S =  R_{0} - R_{gas}  / R_{0}$	Electron transfer direction
TiO <sub>2</sub> (in-situ)	2560.89	508.78	0.80	From $H_2$ to $TiO_2$
N-TiO <sub>2</sub>	34947.41	7384.07	0.79	From $H_2$ to $TiO_2$
TiO <sub>2</sub> (commercial)	2513.34	3694.59	0.47	From $TiO_2$ to $H_2$

 $R_0$  was assigned to the last impedance value prior to introducing  $H_2;\,R_{\rm gas}$  was assigned to the lowest value after introducing  $H_2;\,S$  was assigned to the gas sensitive response value.

sensor sample was defined as  $S = |R_0 - R_{\rm gas}| / R_0$ , where  $R_{\rm gas}$  and  $R_0$  were the impedance measured in the testing gas and in the background atmosphere, respectively.

# 2.4. Photocatalytic performances

The catalytic oxidation of  $H_2$  over the catalyst sample was conducted in a 50 mL quartz reaction tube. 0.1 g catalyst with a grain size of 0.2–0.3 mm was loaded on the bottom of batch. It was injected reacted gas (including 5 mL high purity of  $O_2$ , 2.5 mL high purity of  $H_2$  and 42.5 mL He) after vacuuming the tube (to let the reaction gases spread more easily). Placed the tube in dark for 10 min to reach a balance, and extracted the 1 mL gas in tube for analyzing contents. Then kept the tube in dark for 50 min, and tested the  $H_2$  and  $O_2$  contents. Finally, the reaction tube was illuminated with UV light for 1 h, and tested the reactants contents again. The reacted gases contents were analyzed using an offline gas chromatograph system equipped with a thermal conductivity detector and a flame ionization detector (Agilent 7890D, Porapark R). Here, since the formed  $H_2O$  by  $H_2$  oxidation product may be adsorbed at the sample surface, the catalytic activity was evaluated by the decrease of  $H_2$  content.

#### 3. Results and discussion

# 3.1. The properties of powder samples

Fig. 1 shows the surface morphology of  $TiO_2$  (commercial),  $TiO_2$  (insitu) and N- $TiO_2$  samples. It was found that the nanoparticle size of both  $TiO_2$  (in-situ) (a-1 and a-2) and N- $TiO_2$  (b-1 and b-2) was larger than that of  $TiO_2$  (commercial) (c-1 and c-2). Moreover,  $TiO_2$  (in-situ) sample was mainly consist of a stacked structure by a number of smooth spherical shape nanoparticles with different sizes, while N- $TiO_2$  sample exhibited an orderly macroporous channel. However,  $TiO_2$  (commercial) sample was made up irregular shape of nanoparticles.

Fig. 2 shows the XRD pattern of TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ), N-TiO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial) samples. All samples exhibited diffraction peaks at  $2\theta = 25.4^{\circ}$ ,  $37.8^{\circ}$ ,  $48.1^{\circ}$ ,  $54.0^{\circ}$ ,  $55.1^{\circ}$ ,  $62.8^{\circ}$ ,  $68.8^{\circ}$ ,  $72.3^{\circ}$  and  $75.1^{\circ}$ , which could be corresponded to (101), (004), (200), (105), (211), (204), (116), (220) and (215) crystal planes of anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> (JPCDS No. 21-1272). As compared to TiO2 (commercial) sample, both TiO2 (insitu) and N-TiO<sub>2</sub> samples exhibited another two small peaks at 36.9° and 38.6°, indexed respectively to (103) and (112) crystal planes of anatase TiO2 (but the two peaks in N-TiO2 were weaker than those in TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ), respectively), indicating that the two kinds of crystal planes were exposed to the surface of both TiO2 (in-situ) and N-TiO2 samples [35,36]. Moreover, the (103) and (112) crystal planes, generally induced by surface defects, was also observed in the HR-TEM images of TiO2 (in-situ) and N-TiO2 samples (seeing Fig. S2 in ESI). In addition, N-TiO2 samples exhibited a stronger peak (a smaller peak width at half height) than both TiO2 (in-situ) and TiO2 (commercial) samples, indicating that the former owned a larger crystallite size than the two latter according to the Scherrer formula [37]. This difference also led to the different textual structure of N-TiO2 from that of TiO2 (in-situ) or TiO2 (commercial) (seeing Fig. S3 in ESI). As shown in Table 1, TiO<sub>2</sub>(in-situ) owned a surface area similar to that of TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial), but less than that of N-TiO<sub>2</sub>.

For anatase TiO2, the Raman spectra generally exhibited the major Raman bands at 144, 197, 399, 515, 519, and 639 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which could be assigned as six Raman-active modes of anatase phase with the symmetries of Eg, Eg, B1g, A1g, B1g and Eg, respectively [38]. Fig. 3 shows the Raman spectra of TiO2 (in-situ), N-TiO2 and TiO2 (commercial) powder samples. As can be seen, TiO2 (commercial) sample displayed four peaks at 144 (Eg), 396 (B1g), 516 (A1g), and 638 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Eg), while both TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ) and N-TiO<sub>2</sub> samples exhibited a tiny shift of four peaks (from 396, 516 and 638 cm<sup>-1</sup> to 398, 519 and 640 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively) as compared to the former. This shift in frequency could be attributed to the interpretation of non-stoichiometry in TiO2 crystal structure induced by the oxygen vacancies or the disorder of some phases [39], indicating that TiO2 (in-situ) and N-TiO2 samples owned more deficiencies than TiO2 (commercial) sample, consistent with the XRD result in Fig. 2. In addition, another peak at 197 cm<sup>-1</sup>, also attributed to the Eg of anatase phase, appeared over TiO2 (in-situ) and N-TiO2 samples, indicating that some lattice may be exposed to the sample surface.

Fig. 4 shows the UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra of three samples. As compared to the white TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial) sample, the white TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ) and the faint yellow N-TiO<sub>2</sub> sample exhibited a red-shifted

Table 4 The results of catalytically oxidizing  $H_2$  over three samples under UV irradiation at room temperature.

Samples	The initial concentration of $\mathrm{H}_2$ (ppm)	The concentration of $H_2$ in dark for 1 h (ppm)	The concentration of $\mathrm{H}_2$ under UV light for 1 h (ppm)	Characteristic
TiO <sub>2</sub> (in-situ)	34741.7	33917.9	26833.0	<sup>a</sup> H <sub>2</sub> oxidized
N-TiO <sub>2</sub>	29539.8	27868.7	18665.4	<sup>a</sup> H <sub>2</sub> oxidized
TiO <sub>2</sub> (commercial)	32858.7	31305.2	30881.5	H <sub>2</sub> not oxidized

a- O2 contents (not shown here) also decreased, indicating that H2 was oxidized by O2.

Table 5
Correlation between H<sub>2</sub> sensing response and its oxidation over three samples under UV irradiation.

Samples	Fermi level value (V) under UV irradiation	Electron transfer direction	H <sub>2</sub> oxidation under UV irradiation
${ m TiO_2}$ (in-situ)	-1.00	From $H_2$ to $TiO_2$	Yes
N- ${ m TiO_2}$	-0.95	From $H_2$ to $N$ - $TiO_2$	Yes
${ m TiO_2}$ (commercial)	-1.34	From $TiO_2$ to $H_2$	No

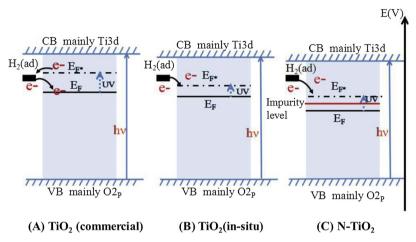


Fig. 9. The proposed process of electron transfer over TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial), TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ) and N-TiO<sub>2</sub> samples adsorbing  $H_2$ . Here, electrons transferring from TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial) to the adsorbed  $H_2$  ( $H_2$  (ad)) due to a higher  $E_F^*$ , while electrons transferring from  $H_2$  (ad) to TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ) or N-TiO<sub>2</sub> due to a lower  $E_F^*$ .

band gap absorption (from 366 nm  $(3.39 \, \text{eV})$  to 384 nm  $(3.23 \, \text{eV})$  and 386 nm  $(3.21 \, \text{eV})$ , respectively). In addition, N-TiO<sub>2</sub> exhibited an obviously stronger absorption in the range from 400 m to 490 nm, indicating that N-TiO<sub>2</sub> owned an absorption in visible region [40]. This red shift in band gap absorption for TiO<sub>2</sub>(in-situ) and N-TiO<sub>2</sub> samples could be attributed to the existed defect level or impurity level.

Fig. 5 shows the EPR spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial), TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ) and N-TiO2 samples at room temperature without UV light. As can be seen, N-TiO<sub>2</sub> sample exhibited a triplet g value sharp signals at g = 1.985, 2.005 and 2.022, respectively. Here, the peak at g = 1.985could be assigned to the surface Ti<sup>3+</sup>, probably induced by the surface Ti<sup>4+</sup> accepting electrons from the rich-electron nitrogen element. The peak at g = 2.005 could be assigned to the oxygen vacancies with single electron, indicating that N-TiO2 owned a lot of oxygen vacancies (consistent with the Raman result in Fig. 3). In addition, the adsorbed O<sub>2</sub> at Ti<sup>4+</sup> cations could also capture electrons to form the O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> radical ions (corresponding to the peak at g = 2.022) [41-43]. These results indicated that the N-TiO2 sample with oxygen vacancies, could effectively inhibit the combination of electron and hole, resulting in the promoted electron migration [43] and then a strong EPR signal (forming a more single electron species). Similarly to N-TiO<sub>2</sub>, the TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ) sample also exhibited a weak at g = 2.003, indicating the existence of oxygen vacancies. However, another two peaks at g = 2.022and g = 1.985 were not observed for  $TiO_2$  (in-situ), meaning that maybe only a tiny oxygen vacancies existed at the sample surface.

The surface composition and chemical state of samples could be also identified by XPS analysis. As shown in Fig. 6–(1), the O1s spectra of  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (commercial),  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (in-situ) and N-TiO<sub>2</sub> samples appeared two peaks respectively. For  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (commercial), the lower peak at 529.68 eV for O1s assigned to the typical lattice oxygen (Ti-O), and the higher peak at 531.27 eV ascribed to the surface hydroxyl (Ti-O-H) of  ${\rm TiO_2}$  [44]. However, the binding energy (BE) values of O1s for the lattice oxygen of  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (in-situ) sample exhibited a positive shift from 529.68–529.88 eV, and that of the surface hydroxyl groups shifted from 531.27–531.58 eV as compared to the  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (commercial) sample, indicating that the electron density of the oxygen species of  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (in-situ) was lower than that of  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (commercial), which may be caused by the

oxygen vacancies. In addition, as for N-TiO<sub>2</sub>, the BE values of oxygen species also presented a positive shift (from 529.68–529.71 eV for the lattice oxygen and from 531.27–531.41 eV for the surface hydroxyl groups, respectively). This also indicated that the electron density of the oxygen species in N-TiO<sub>2</sub> was reduced due to the existence of surface defects by doping nitrogen.

Fig. 6-(2) shows the Ti2p high-resolution spectra of TiO2 (commercial), TiO2 (in-situ) and N-TiO2 samples As compared to that of TiO2 (commercial) (Ti2 $p_{3/2}$  at 458.61 eV, Ti2 $p_{1/2}$  at 464.30 eV), the BE values of  $Ti2p_{3/2}$  (458.71 eV) and  $Ti2p_{1/2}$  (464.40 eV) of  $TiO_2$  (in-situ) exhibited a positive shift of ca. 0.1 eV, indicating that TiO2 (in-situ) owned a higher electron density at Ti sites. However, N-TiO2 exhibited a negative shift at BE of  $Ti2p_{3/2}$  (from 458.61 to 458.48 eV) and  $Ti2p_{1/2}$ (from 464.30 to 464.17 eV) as compared to TiO2 (commercial) indicating that the electron density of Ti at N-TiO2 surface was increased, which may be caused by the doping of rich-electron nitrogen element. Note that no peak of Ti3+ appeared over N-TiO2 (maybe the amount of Ti<sup>3+</sup> too few), although the result of EPR in Fig. 5 showed the existence of Ti<sup>3+</sup> in N-TiO<sub>2</sub>. In addition, the BE of N1s at 399.78 eV for N-TiO<sub>2</sub> sample in Fig. 6-(3) could be attributed to the anionic N- in O-Ti-N linkages [35,36,45,46], indicating that nitrogen was doped into the lattice of TiO2.

# 3.2. Mott-Schottky plots of powder samples

The above results of Raman, EPR and XPS showed that N-TiO $_2$  and TiO $_2$  (in-situ) samples owned more surface defects. These defects maybe bring down the Fermi level of TiO $_2$ . To confirm it, a series of Mott–Schottky plots of three samples were tested.

Fig. 7 exhibits the Mott–Schottky plots of  $TiO_2$  (commercial),  $TiO_2$  (in-situ) and N- $TiO_2$  samples in dark or under UV irradiation, respectively. Since the conduction band position of a n-type semiconductor is very close to the flat band potential [47,48], here the obtained flat band potential in Fig. 7 could be regarded as the Fermi level ( $E_F$ ) of sample.

As seen in Fig. 7, the flat-band potential (corresponding to  $E_F$ ) with respect to Ag/AgCl (1 M KCl) electrode could be measured by different frequencies (500, 1000 and 1500 Hz) of Mott–Schottky plots. The flat-

band potentials of TiO2 (commercial), TiO2 (in-situ) and N-TiO2 in dark were -1.17, -0.95 and -0.90 V, respectively. Apparently, N-TiO<sub>2</sub> exhibited the lowest EF value, in accordance with its owning the most amount of surface defects, indicating that the existence of surface defects did really put down the flat-band potential (E<sub>F</sub>). However, under UV light irradiation, the flat-band potential value (of TiO2 (commercial),  $TiO_2$  (in-situ) and N-TiO $_2$  went up to -1.34, -1.00 and -0.95 V, respectively, indicating that the light-excited electron transition behavior could elevate the E<sub>F</sub> value of each sample (Strictly speaking, the non-equilibrium (transient equilibrium) replacement of the Fermi level in UV light is called the quasi-Fermi level  $E_F^*$  [49]). In fact, it has been reported that the Fermi level was dependent on the electron accumulation within the semiconductor particles, the Fermi level becomes more negative and shifts closer to the conduction band edge by the more electrons accumulation [50,51]. T. Berger et al. also reported that the Fermi level of anatase TiO2 nanoparticles could be controlled by the electron accumulation in the TiO2 electrode in an electrochemical cell under a certain set of conditions [52]. Note that the increase in E<sub>F</sub> of TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ) (from -0.95 V to -1.0 V) or N-TiO<sub>2</sub> (from -0.90 to -0.95 V) was much less than that of TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial) (from -1.17 to -1.34 V). This maybe because the excited electrons could be captured by surface defects, resulting in the decrease of electrons in conducting band and then a little increase of E<sub>F</sub> [53].

Furthermore, the above the flat-band potential  $(E_F)$  could be converted to the potential value reference to the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) by the following equation [54]:

 $ERHE = EAg/AgCl + 0.059pH + E^{\theta}Ag/AgCl(1MKCl)$ 

where,  $E_{Ag/AgCI}^0$  (1 M KCl) = 0.236 V at 25 °C. According to this equation, the  $E_F$  value (vs. RHE) of TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial), TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ) and N-TiO<sub>2</sub> in Fig. 7 was -0.52 V, -0.30 V, -0.25 V in dark and -0.69 V, -0.35 V, -0.30 V under UV irradiation, respectively (seeing Table 2). This result was also in accordance with the value calculated by electronegativity concept [55,56]. As compared to TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial), N-TiO<sub>2</sub> sample exhibited a lower conduction band due to its higher electronegativity.

In addition, the UPS result showed that the work function value of  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (commercial),  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (in-situ) and N-TiO<sub>2</sub> samples was 3.0, 3.62 and 3.80 eV, respectively (seeing Fig. S4 in ESI), also indicating that both  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (in-situ) and N-TiO<sub>2</sub> samples owned a lower Fermi level than  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (commercial).

# 3.3. Gas sensing responses of sensor samples

Fig. 8 shows the gas sensing responses of TiO2 (in-situ), N-TiO2 and TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial) sensor samples to H<sub>2</sub> under UV light irradiation at room temperature in N2 atmosphere. The impedances of three samples decreased rapidly with the introduction of UV light, due to the production of the photo-generated electrons. With the increase of time, the impedances of three samples would increase slowly, which could be attributed to the change in the surface state of TiO2 or N-TiO2 induced by UV light. Here, the generation of electrons, the recombination of electrons by holes, the capture of electrons by defects or surface hydroxyls, and the electrons transfer would make some changes with the duration of introducing UV light, especially under the bias voltage [35]. When H<sub>2</sub> was introduced into the testing system, the impedances of both TiO2 (in-situ) and N-TiO2 samples decreased primarily, and then increased slowly (but the final value was lower than the initial value). However, the impedance of TiO2 (commercial) sample increased integrally. This indicated that the absorbed H<sub>2</sub> on TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ) or N-TiO<sub>2</sub> surface, would offer electrons to the semiconductor, but that on TiO2 (commercial) would accept electrons from semiconductor [33].

Further comparing the gas sensitivity values (S) of three sensor samples to  $H_2$  (seeing Table 3), it can be seen that both  $TiO_2$  (in-situ) and  $N\text{-}TiO_2$  samples exhibited a higher value of gas sensitivity (S = 0.79 for  $N\text{-}TiO_2$ , and S = 0.80 for  $TiO_2$  (in-situ)) than the  $TiO_2$  (commercial) sample (S = 0.47), indicating that both  $TiO_2$  (in-situ) and

 $N\text{-TiO}_2$  could also promote  $H_2$  gas sensitivity as compared to the  $\text{TiO}_2$  (commercial) sample. This difference may be ascribed to the difference in Fermi level of three samples.

### 3.4. Photocatalytic activities of powder samples

In our previous work [18], we have found that the electron-donated CO could be oxidized but the electron-accepted  $\rm H_2$  not be oxidized over a  $\rm TiO_2$  catalyst under UV irradiation. However, in this work, the  $\rm H_2$  would act as electron donor when it was adsorbed on  $\rm TiO_2$  (in-situ) and N-TiO<sub>2</sub> samples. According to the above viewpoint, this electron-donated  $\rm H_2$  would be photocatalytically oxidized just like that the electron-donated CO. To confirm it, the photocatalytic performances of oxidizing  $\rm H_2$  over three samples were tested under UV irradiation.

Table 4 shows the change of  $H_2$  concentration in an intermittent reactor (quartz tube) over three catalyst samples in dark and under UV irradiation. After 1 h in dark, the  $H_2$  concentration over all three samples would decrease slightly due to the adsorption of  $H_2$ . However, adding UV light would cause different extents of change in  $H_2$  concentration over different samples. The  $H_2$  concentration almost kept unchanged (just a tiny decrease) over  $TiO_2$  (commercial) under UV irradiation for 1 h but would decrease obviously over  $TiO_2$  (in-situ) and N- $TiO_2$  in the same case. This result indicated that both  $TiO_2$  (in-situ) and N- $TiO_2$  could catalytically oxidize  $H_2$  under UV irradiation, but  $TiO_2$  (commercial) hardly did it. This further confirmed the viewpoint in our previous work [18].

# 4. Proposed process of electron transfer over ${\rm TiO_2}$ or N-TiO<sub>2</sub> absorbing ${\rm H_2}$

Based on the above results of Fermi level, photo-assisted gas sensing response and photocatalytic performances of three samples (seeing Table 5), it was found that  $H_2$  photocatalytic oxidation over  $TiO_2$  (insitu), N- $TiO_2$  and  $TiO_2$  (commercial) samples was actually dependent on the electron transfer behavior between the adsorbed  $H_2$  and the sample surface. As  $H_2$  was adsorbed on  $TiO_2$  (in-situ) and N- $TiO_2$  under UV irradiation, it donated electrons into  $TiO_2$  and then was oxidized by  $O_2$ , while  $H_2$  was adsorbed on  $TiO_2$  (commercial) under UV irradiation, it accepted electrons from  $TiO_2$  and could not be oxidized. In other words, the pre-oxidized  $H_2$  (donating electrons,  $H_2^+$ ) was easily oxidized by  $O_2$  as compared to the pre-reduced  $H_2$  (accepting electrons,  $H_2^-$ ) over  $TiO_2$  under UV irradiation.

Furthermore, according to the boundary layer theory of semiconductor adsorbing gas 1 and our previous work 18, this different electron transfer behavior between the adsorbed  $H_2$  and semiconductor maybe depended on the Fermi level of semiconductor itself. For TiO2 (commercial), the adsorbed H<sub>2</sub> (H<sub>2</sub>(ad)) usually offer electrons to TiO<sub>2</sub> due to its low E<sub>F</sub> in dark (seeing Fig. 9A). However, UV irradiation could elevate the Fermi level (i.e., E<sub>F</sub>\*) of TiO<sub>2</sub> (even higher than the adsorption-state energy level of H2), resulting in the electron transfer from TiO2 (commercial) to the H2(ad) under UV irradiation. However, TiO2 (in-situ) owned a low EF or EF\* value (lower than the adsorptionstate energy level of H<sub>2</sub>) due to the existed surface defects, the electrons would transfer from the H<sub>2</sub>(ad) to TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ) under UV irradiation (seeing Fig. 9B). For N-TiO2, the existed impurity level induced by N doping would further push down the Fermi level ( $E_F$  and  $E_F$ \*) [53,57], resulting in the adsorbed H2 also donating electrons into N-TiO2 under UV irradiation (seeing Fig. 9C).

This above result also shows, although  $H_2$  can be thermodynamically oxidized by  $O_2$  over all three samples (the valence band level of each sample was lower than the standard reduction potential of half reaction ( $H_2 + 2e \rightarrow 2H^+$ ), while its conductive band level was higher than the standard reduction potential of other half reaction ( $1/2O_2 + 2H^+ + 2e \rightarrow H_2O$ ) [18], its oxidation would be actually dependent on the electron transfer behavior when it was adsorbed at each sample, which further controlled by the sample's Fermi level. That is to

say,  $H_2$  oxidation over a semiconductor not only depends on its valence band level (thermodynamic controlling), but also depends its conducting band level (near to the Fermi level) (dynamic controlling). This viewpoint may be applicable for understanding other reactant's photocatalytic oxidation behaviors over other semiconductors.

#### 5. Conclusions

From the present investigation the following conclusions can be drawn:

- (I) H<sub>2</sub> oxidation over three TiO<sub>2</sub>-based samples under UV irradiation was dependent on the photo-assisted H<sub>2</sub> sensing response behavior over each sample, i.e., H<sub>2</sub> photocatalytic oxidation behavior over TiO<sub>2</sub>-based semiconductor was dependent on the electron transfer direction between the adsorbed H<sub>2</sub> and semiconductor under UV irradiation: The adsorbed H<sub>2</sub> over TiO<sub>2</sub> (commercial) acted as an electron acceptor (electrons transfer from semiconductor to H<sub>2</sub>) and then could not be oxidized, but that at TiO<sub>2</sub> (in-situ) or N-TiO<sub>2</sub> acted as an electron donor (electrons transfer from H<sub>2</sub> to semiconductor) and then was oxidized.
- (II) The electron transfer direction between  $H_2$  and semiconductor sample was dependent on the Fermi level of sample: The Fermi level of  $TiO_2$  (in-situ) or  $N-TiO_2$  was lower than that of  $TiO_2$  (commercial) in dark and UV light, respectively, resulting in electron transfer from  $H_2$  to the two former samples but from the latter sample to  $H_2$ .
- (III) The Fermi level of each sample was somewhat dependent on its surface defects: Both  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (in-situ) and  ${\rm N\text{-}TiO_2}$  owned a more exposed lattice plane and oxygen vacancies as compared to  ${\rm TiO_2}$  (commercial), resulting in the Fermi level of two former samples lower than that of the latter sample.

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# Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2019.03.026.

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